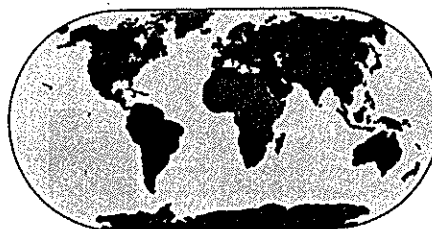


Unit VIII

Years of Crisis



Chapters

- 27 World War I (1914–1918)
- 28 Russia in Revolution (1825–1939)
- 29 Shifts in World Power (1900–1939)
- 30 The Years between the Wars (1918–1939)
- 31 World War II (1939–1945)

The first half of the twentieth century proved to be one of the most violent and destructive periods in human history. Two great world wars were fought, with a twenty-year truce between them. These conflicts involved most of the world's nations and caused the death of more than 60 million people. Revolutions and regional conflicts added to the destruction. What signs of conflict appear on the time line on pages 616–617?

In Europe, both World War I and World War II involved systems of alliances that led to aggression. Both wars also centered on Germany and its nationalist and imperialist ambitions. What impact did these wars have on Europe's economy and role in world affairs?

Nationalism was a powerful force in other countries besides Germany. Major political revolutions occurred within such nations as Russia and China. Other countries—such as Japan—sought great power status, while colonial possessions—such as India—sought independence. People in many countries demanded a greater role in their nation's affairs.

As you read these chapters, note the impact of new political ideas and economic crises on world events. How did these ideas and crises lead to both cooperation and conflict during this era? Finally, what individuals—for better or worse—greatly influenced political events at this critical time in history?

TIME LINE

1882	Triple Alliance (Ger./Aust./It.)
1904–1905	Russo-Japanese War
1905	Einstein's theory of relativity
1907	British/French/Russian Entente
1910	1910 Revolution in Mexico
1911	Revolution ends China's empire
1914	Assassination at Sarajevo
1914–1918	World War I
1917	Russian Revolution
1917	U.S. joins Allies
1917	Balfour Declaration
1919	Treaty of Versailles
1919	Weimar Republic in Germany
1922	Mussolini dictator in Italy
1928	Stalin dictator in USSR
1929	Stock market crash starts Depression
1931	Japan invades Manchuria
1933	Hitler dictator in Germany
1935	Italy invades Ethiopia
1936–1939	Civil war in Spain
1937	Japan invades China
1937–1945	World War II in Asia
1938	Appeasement at Munich
1939–1945	World War II in Europe
1941–1945	Holocaust in Europe
1941	Japan attacks Pearl Harbor; U.S. joins Allies
1945	Atom bombs destroy Hiroshima, Nagasaki

Read and Understand

1. How did the European system of alliances contribute to the outbreak of World War I?
2. (a) What events led to the outbreak of World War I? (b) Why was the first Battle of the Marne a turning point in the war?
3. (a) What factors caused the war to last for four years? (b) In what ways was World War I different from all previous wars?
4. What were the strengths and limitations of the Treaty of Versailles?

VOCABULARY militarism, mobilize, neutrality, total war, propaganda, armistice, self-determination, reparations, mandate

In 1914, the assassination of the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary set in motion events that led to the most terrible conflict the world had known. Germany, joined by Austria and Turkey, fought against the forces of Britain, France, Russia, and later the United States. Because neither side could gain a quick advantage, the war dragged on for four years. The Allied victory over Germany and Austria-Hungary led to the Versailles Treaty, which set terms of peace but left many problems unsolved (chart, page 633).

Conflicts divided Europe.

In the late 1800's, nationalism became a threat to world peace. The old balance of power was giving way before the rise of a powerful Germany. Bismarck, after uniting Germany, turned to a policy of peace insured by treaties with other countries. The result was the Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary. (The addition of Italy made this a Triple Alliance.) Bismarck also made a treaty with Russia.

The year 1890 brought a sudden change in Germany's foreign policy when Kaiser William II forced Bismarck to resign. The kaiser aimed to continue the Prussian tradition of military power. "I and the army were born for each other," he said at his coronation. Under his rule, Germany developed Europe's largest and most modern army and a navy second only to that of Britain.

The kaiser also allowed Germany's treaty with Russia to lapse. This created an opportunity for France, which quickly formed an alliance with Russia. In 1904, Britain—alarmed by Germany's growing empire and naval power—also signed a treaty of friendship

with France. Europe was now divided into two rival camps that even a minor dispute could draw into war (map, page 623).

Nationalism was also a threat to southeastern Europe. There, various national groups sought independence from Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman empire, the two powers that dominated the region. Several groups had already broken away, and others waited their chance. Many of the subject peoples were Slavs who wanted to establish their own nation. Russia, which was also Slavic, encouraged them to rebel against Austria. Tension remained high in southeastern Europe, and Germany—through its alliances—was involved. By the summer of 1914, many Europeans accepted the idea that war was inevitable. All the Great Powers except Britain kept large standing armies and generals eager to test their new weapons and carefully laid battle plans. **Militarism**—the idea that the use of force was an acceptable way to decide political problems—also threatened the peace. Politicians and ordinary people alike thought only of war's glories, having forgotten its horrors.

Europe plunged into war.

The Great War, when it came, was sparked by an unlikely event. In June of 1914, a Serbian nationalist assassinated the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, Hapsburg heir to the Austrian-Hungarian throne, and his wife Sophie. The assassination occurred in Sarajevo, a primarily Serbian city in what is today Bosnia-Herzegovina. While a terrible incident, this was but one of many political assassinations during this troubled era. Why did it lead to World War I?

The key factor was the alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary. Austria demanded the right to enter Serbia to arrest nationalists who had plotted the assassination. Although Serbia hesitantly agreed, Austria—with Germany's support—declared war on Serbia. Other countries were quickly drawn into the conflict. Russia announced its support for Serbia and began to **mobilize**—to prepare for war—and to move its armies toward the Austrian and German borders. Kaiser William II used Russia's action as a reason for Germany to mobilize and to declare war on Russia. Germany also declared war on France.

Germany's battle plan called for defeating France first to avoid a war on two fronts. To achieve that goal Germany invaded Belgium—which had maintained

neutrality by not taking sides—in order to attack France along an unfortified border. With that action, the system of alliances brought France and Britain into the conflict. France, Britain, and Russia became the Allied Powers, while Germany and Austria-Hungary were the Central Powers. Turkey and Bulgaria joined the Central Powers. Italy joined the Allies.

The war dragged on for four years.

The German invasion of Belgium and France led to the military nightmare that Bismarck had sought to avoid—a two-front war. That situation required Germany to have two separate armies, one for use against France and England in western Europe and one to hold off Russia in the east. Seeking a quick victory in the west, German armies rushed to reach Paris before British armies were fully in place. The German strategy almost succeeded. Only 40 miles northeast of Paris did the French and British armies stop the German advance in the Battle of the Marne.

The technology created by the Industrial Revolution provided new weapons of war. One was the automatic machine gun, with which one man could hold off dozens of attackers. Another new weapon was poison gas, which choked and blinded its victims. In 1916, the British introduced the tank, which at first proved of little value because of mechanical failures. Airplanes too became weapons—at first, for spying and photographing but later for bombing. At sea, the Germans used a new invention, the submarine or U-boat, to attack British naval and merchant ships.

World War I differed from earlier wars in being a total war, one in which all human and economic resources were used to support the war effort. Governments found it necessary to take greater internal control in order to organize those resources for the war. As men went off to war, women took jobs in factories and offices and worked on farms and in hospitals. To keep people's loyalty and support, governments used propaganda, or information chosen to portray their point of view (posters, page 625).

Following the Battle of the Marne, the war entered a three-year stalemate, with neither side able to gain a significant advantage (map, page 631). By 1915, the Western Front had become a 600-mile-long network of trenches, as each side had dug in for protection. Conditions in the trenches were horrible, especially during the cold of winter. Poison gas and artillery bombardments added to the troops' misery.

Great battles were fought when either side, Allied or German, tried to push forward. Always the attackers were stopped, but at enormous cost. During the Battle of the Somme, fought over several months during 1916, each side suffered more than half a million casualties. It was considered an Allied victory,

although the front was pushed forward just five miles.

On the Eastern Front, another German army faced the Russians. Although Russian armies were forced to retreat, they succeeded in tying up vast numbers of German troops while the war in the west went on. Fighting between the Allies and the Central Powers also occurred in other places. A third front opened in Italy after that nation joined the Allies in 1915. An Allied campaign that was directed against Turkey in the Dardanelles ended in failure. Fighting also occurred in Africa and in Asia, where Japan joined the Allies.

The year 1917 was a critical one for Germany. As conditions at home worsened, leaders decided to gamble on a quick victory through increased submarine warfare. Attacks on American ships, however, led to the United States' entry into the war in April 1917 to aid the Allies. At the same time, Germany gained on the Eastern Front.

There Russia was in turmoil as the result of a revolution that led to the overthrow of the czar. In November 1917, the new Russian government made peace with Germany. This freed Germany to move its armies from the Eastern Front to the Western Front and a final drive for victory. The spring of 1918 brought the start of a massive new German offensive. By early June, German armies were at the Marne.

Once again the attack stalled. At a critical moment, the arrival of American troops gave the Allies fresh forces to send into battle. In August, the Allies launched a major counteroffensive. Using tanks, they broke the deadlock of trench warfare and pushed the German armies back. By the autumn of 1918, German armies were running out of ammunition, food, and soldiers. Faced with the prospect of invasion, Kaiser William II abandoned his throne. Revolution also brought down the emperor of Austria. An armistice—an agreement to end the fighting—was signed on November 11, 1918.

WORLD WAR I		
1914	July	Austria declares war on Serbia
	Aug.	Germany declares war on Russia, France; invades Belgium
		Britain declares war on Germany
1915	Sept.	French stop German forces at Marne
	May	German U-boat sinks <i>Lusitania</i>
	May	Italy joins Allies
1916	Feb.	Allies stop Germans at Verdun
1917	Jan.	Germany steps up U-boat war
	Mar.	Russian Revolution
	Apr.	U.S. joins Allies
1918	Mar.	Russia signs treaty with Germany
	June	Allies stop German forces at Marne
	Aug.	Allies break German lines at Amiens
	Nov.	Armistice

The end of the fighting revealed how destructive the war had been. Both sides had lost huge numbers of young men. Whole regions had been destroyed by the fighting and now had to be rebuilt. The war also left an aftermath of bitterness and pessimism expressed in art and literature in the decades after the war.

Peace stood on shaky foundations.

Early in 1919, delegates of the Allied Powers met in Paris. Their task was to hammer out a lasting peace for Europe and the world. President Woodrow Wilson, who represented the United States, spoke of making the conflict just ended "the war to end all wars."

Wilson wanted a peace based on what he called Fourteen Points, his blueprint for a peaceful future. One of his goals was **self-determination**, the right of nationalist groups to form their own countries and governments. Other goals included reducing armaments, ending secret treaties of alliance, and adjusting colonial claims. Most of all, Wilson wanted an international organization, the League of Nations, where nations could settle their differences by peaceful means.

However, other Allied leaders—Lloyd George of Britain and Clemenceau of France—had different aims. Because their countries had suffered enormous losses during the war, they were determined that Germany make **reparations**, or payments for damages.

Several different treaties were signed in France during 1919. They recognized Wilson's principle of self-determination—particularly in eastern Europe, where the old Austrian and Turkish empires were abolished and new countries such as Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia were created. Poland became a nation for the first time since 1795 (map, page 636).

The most significant treaty, however, concerned Germany. Signed at Louis XIV's magnificent palace, Versailles, five years to the day after Franz Ferdinand's assassination, the Treaty of Versailles punished Germany severely. It called for Germany to surrender 13 percent of its territory, including Alsace and Lorraine to France and other areas to Belgium, Denmark, and Poland. Germany's overseas colonies were given to Britain and France as **mandates**, or territories to administer under the supervision of the League of Nations. Germany was also forced to disarm and to end production of submarines and airplanes. The most severe part of the treaty was Article 231, which placed the sole blame for the war on Germany and called for billions of dollars in reparations to be paid over 30 years.

Additional treaties provided for lands lost by the Ottoman empire. These were organized as new territories to be governed as mandates. Palestine, Iraq,

and Transjordan became mandates of Britain, while Syria and Lebanon became mandates of France.

The United States did not sign the Treaty of Versailles. Members of Congress questioned a number of its terms, particularly the provision for the League of Nations. Thus the United States made its own treaties with Germany and its allies later and did not join the League.

The Treaty of Versailles did not build a lasting peace. Many Germans resented the treaty, feeling bitterness and hate toward its harsh terms. Other countries also questioned some of its terms. It was, an observer said, "a peace built on quicksand."

Chapter Review

Define militarism, mobilize, neutrality, total war, propaganda, armistice, self-determination, reparations, mandate

Identify Kaiser William II, Triple Alliance, Franz Ferdinand, Central Powers, Allied Powers, Battle of the Marne, Woodrow Wilson, Treaty of Versailles

Answer

1. To what extent was the European system of alliances the cause of World War I?
2. What were the short-term causes of the war?
3. (a) What were the main characteristics of the fighting in World War I? (b) What new weapons were developed to gain strategic advantages?

Critical Thinking

4. The British politician Winston Churchill described the Allied victory as "bought so dear as to be indistinguishable from defeat." Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Why?

Connecting Past and Present

The terrible destruction and loss of life in World War I convinced nations of the need for peace. Out of that concern, the League of Nations—the first worldwide organization of nations—was founded in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1920. However, the "war to end all wars" proved to be merely the first stage of a two-part world conflict that finally ended in 1945.

The founding of the United Nations in 1944 began a new effort to resolve international conflicts and maintain peace. Besides dealing with quarrels between nations, the UN includes agencies that work to improve world health, protect the world's children, and provide information on educational and scientific matters.

Chapter 28

1825–1939

Russia in Revolution

Read and Understand

1. What efforts toward reform were made in Russia?
2. What conditions led to the Russian Revolution?
3. How did the Bolsheviks gain power?
4. What policies did Stalin follow as dictator?

VOCABULARY autocrat, autocracy, abdicate, soviet, command economy, collective farm, totalitarian

Russia in the 1800's lagged far behind the countries of western Europe in development. In spite of periodic efforts at reform, conditions were so bad that the people rose up in revolution. A radical group, the Bolsheviks, seized power in a second revolution and turned the nation toward communism. Stalin, the dictator who gained power, made the Soviet Union a totalitarian state.

Russia struggled to reform.

Russia in the nineteenth century had changed little since the time of Catherine the Great. While the Industrial Revolution swept western Europe, Russia remained mainly agricultural. More than 90 percent of the population gained a living by farming. Of those, 80 percent were serfs—poor, uneducated people bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Serfs had almost no rights; they could be bought and sold or sent to Siberia.

Many Russians believed that serfdom must end, both because it was wrong and because it hindered economic development. Serfs had no incentives to produce more or to improve their way of living. Freeing them would allow Russia to modernize.

The key to freeing the serfs was the czar. Czars like Alexander I ruled Russia as autocrats, or absolute rulers. Most czars and their advisers opposed modernization. Thus, although Alexander could have ended serfdom by a decree, he did not.

Alexander's death in 1825 led to a revolt by army officers, a group called the Decembrists. As veterans of the long wars against Napoleon, they had come in contact with Western ideas such as the rights of citizens. Because Russian autocracy, or absolute rule, allowed no such rights, they organized secret societies to work toward a written constitution that would grant some rights. Their brief revolt failed, and the new Czar Nicholas I retained absolute power.

Nicholas I followed policies of oppression. He cooperated with the nobles against the serfs, putting down more than 500 uprisings in about 30 years. He also limited education, even among upper classes, to prevent the spread of new ideas. Russia's loss in the Crimean War against Great Britain (1853–1856) showed the weakness and backwardness of his reign.

Alexander II, Nicholas's son, followed more enlightened policies. In March 1861, he issued a decree abolishing serfdom. Nonetheless, the actual changes it made were limited. Some land was taken from the nobles for the peasants. However, although they had to pay for the land, they did not own it. Instead, it belonged to the community, or *mir*. Thus the peasants were still tied to the land for a living. The few other changes made by Alexander did not bring real reform. Discontent continued among peasants and intellectuals. Idealistic students, embittered by the resistance to change, assassinated Alexander II. His successor, Alexander III, totally rejected reform.

People's hopes rose again with the accession of Nicholas II in 1894. At his coronation, however, Nicholas announced, "I shall maintain the principle of autocracy." Nonetheless, new ideas had begun to appear in science, in literature with the writings of Tolstoy and Dostoyevsky, in music with the works of Tchaikovsky, and in ballet with the work of Diaghilev.

Rapid urban growth reflected other kinds of change. By investing in business, the czar's government encouraged industry in such centers as St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Baku. Foreign investment aided the building of the Trans-Siberian Railway, which in 1904 connected European Russia with Russian ports on the Pacific. It was the longest railway in the world.

Nonetheless, few reforms were made to benefit the people. Most of them still lived by tending small plots of land. City workers were scarcely better off. Working conditions were poor, wages very low, and unions illegal. Similar conditions in western Europe in the early Industrial Revolution had given way to improved conditions and a rising standard of living. In Russia, such changes had not yet begun.

Russia moved toward revolution.

Although Russia in the early twentieth century remained an autocracy, movements for political change had begun. One political group, the Constitutional Democrats, included liberals who sought to

limit the czar's power and create a constitutional monarchy. Another group included radicals who sought revolutionary change. Some of them—the Social Revolutionaries—appealed to the peasants, believing that they were the only ones who could overthrow the czar. Another radical group, the Social Democrats, appealed to the workers, believing that the force for revolution would come from them. The Social Democrats followed the ideas of Karl Marx.

One of the leaders of the Social Democrats was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, better known as Lenin. Lenin sought revolution not only in Russia but also worldwide. His desire for action led to a split among his followers. Many wanted to delay, believing that a revolution could succeed only after Russia was more industrialized. This group was known as the Mensheviks. Others—the Bolsheviks—wanted an immediate revolution, led by a small but determined group of extreme radicals who would set up a "dictatorship of the proletariat."

While opposition to the czar increased between 1900 and 1914, Russia faced a series of crises. In a war for control of Korea, Russia was easily beaten by Japanese forces in the Russo-Japanese War, which lasted from 1904 to 1905. That defeat increased unrest at home and led to a brief revolution in 1905.

In another crisis, known as Bloody Sunday, soldiers in St. Petersburg fired on a peaceful march by unarmed protesters seeking moderate reforms. Between 500 and 1,000 people were killed. The strikes that followed forced Nicholas to create a parliament, the Duma. Most members of the Duma were moderates who wanted a constitution. That was still too much for Nicholas, who dissolved the Duma within three months.

The war in Europe created a third crisis. Czar Nicholas made the decision to declare war. Russian troops, though eager and brave, were no match for the German armies, well equipped and armed with machine guns and long-range artillery. In 1914 alone, four million Russian soldiers were killed, wounded, or taken prisoner.

In 1915, Nicholas moved to the front to be with his armies and left the government in the hands of his wife, Alexandra. The czarina, however, was strongly influenced by a friend, the mysterious Rasputin. A peasant who claimed to be a holy man, Rasputin had gained influence with the rulers by seeming to cure their son of a dangerous disease. Rasputin opposed reform and spread corruption at the royal court. His evil influence ended with his murder in 1916. Neither Alexandra nor Nicholas proved able to deal with the worsening conditions in Russia.

February of 1917 brought a new crisis. The lack of bread—the workers' main food—led the women of St. Petersburg to rebel. They were joined by factory

workers and many soldiers. What started as a local protest grew into a general uprising that forced the czar to abdicate, or give up his throne. The Duma was revived to provide a provisional government. Its leader was a moderate socialist, Alexander Kerensky. Kerensky was also a member of the workers' council, or soviet, in St. Petersburg. Thus he seemed to have the support of both groups.

Kerensky made a fatal mistake by trying to continue the war against Germany. Russian soldiers proved no more willing to die for Kerensky than for the czar. At that point the Germans—knowing that Lenin and the Bolsheviks opposed the war—enabled Lenin to return secretly to Russia from exile in Switzerland.

The Bolsheviks led a second revolution.

Lenin recognized that the provisional government was failing and that he now had a chance to gain power. He knew that the Bolsheviks were a small group with little popular appeal. Nonetheless, they were well organized and tightly disciplined. They used events such as an attempted military coup to gain popular support. Lenin's slogan of "Peace, Land, and Bread" had wide appeal. At the same time, the Bolsheviks organized Red Guard units as their own secret army (chart, page 653).

In October 1917, Lenin decided to act. "History will not forgive us," he wrote, "if we do not seize power now." Without warning, on the night of October 24, Red Guard units took over government offices and arrested members of the provisional government. Within days, Lenin ordered that all farmland be distributed among the peasants. He immediately signed a truce with Germany, stopping all fighting on the Eastern Front. He also took control of all factories and industries.

In spite of Lenin's actions, unrest continued. Elections in November 1917 returned moderates to the new national assembly. Within a day, the Bolsheviks closed the legally elected assembly and took over power. Unrest increased when Russians learned the extremely harsh terms of the Treaty of Brest Litovsk, which the Bolshevik government signed with Germany in March 1918. Russia gave up one fourth of its European territory to Germany, along with many of its mines and factories.

Civil war raged in Russia from the summer of 1918 to 1920 as units of the White Armies—those opposed to Lenin and the Bolsheviks—fought with the Bolshevik Red Army under the revolutionary leader Leon Trotsky (born Lev Davidovich Bronstein). The three-year struggle left more than 15 million Russians dead, including the former czar, Nicholas II, and all his family. The destruction and the loss of life from fighting, hunger, and a terrible flu epidemic left Russia

in chaos. The economy was destroyed, trade was gone, and workers were killed or had fled.

Lenin continued his policies of ruthless oppression, aided now by the Cheka—the Bolshevik secret police. To revive the economy, Lenin in 1921 began the New Economic Policy (NEP), which combined elements of capitalism with the Bolsheviks' state socialism. Lenin also began political reform by organizing the nation into a number of self-governing republics under the central government. The country was renamed the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), in honor of the workers' councils that had launched the second revolution. The Bolsheviks also renamed their party the Communist party. The name came from the writings of Karl Marx, who used the term *communism* for the economic system based on central planning by the state that would exist after workers gained power.

Conditions gradually improved between 1921 and 1928. One great uncertainty remained, however—the leadership of the Communist party. A series of strokes left Lenin an invalid in 1922. Over the next two years, Leon Trotsky, leader of the Red Army, and Joseph Stalin (born Djugashvili), head of the Communist party, waged a bitter struggle for power. Stalin won and took control when Lenin died in 1924. By 1929, he had forced Trotsky into exile and gained power.

Stalin became dictator.

Stalin set out at once to implement his own policies. A quiet and ruthless man, he combined Marxist beliefs with old-fashioned Russian nationalism. Unlike Lenin, who viewed the Russian Revolution as the first stage of a worldwide workers' uprising, Stalin was concerned solely with the Soviet Union. He was determined to turn the nation into a major modern power. To do that, he replaced the NEP with two new plans, one for industry and the other for agriculture.

In 1928, Stalin launched the first of several Five-Year Plans. The plan called for a **command economy**, one in which the government managed the whole economy and organized it to achieve the goals of the state. The main objective for industry was to increase the output of coal, steel, and electricity. Production goals were set high and workers were forced to meet them. Other workers were sent to develop factories east of the Urals. At the same time, production of consumer goods was limited. The Five-Year Plans were a huge success. By 1938, the nation was a major industrial power.

The agricultural revolution begun by Stalin was equally successful—and far more brutal. In 1928, the government abolished the more than 25 million small farms and replaced them with **collective farms** owned by the government. The peasants resisted so fiercely that between 5 million and 10 million of them died,

while millions more were sent to Siberia. To end resistance, the government twice seized harvests and left the peasants to die in terrible famines. By 1938, 90 percent of the peasants lived on collective farms.

The price of Stalin's economic progress was enormous in human terms. The Soviet Union became a **totalitarian state**—a place where an absolute dictator and one-party government controlled all aspects of life. People who protested were imprisoned or executed. Religion was suppressed and thousands of former Bolsheviks were arrested and executed. By 1940, Stalin alone survived from the Communist government that had seized power in 1917.

Chapter Review

Define autocrat, autocracy, abdicate, soviet, command economy, collective farm, totalitarian

Identify Decembrists, Nicholas II, Trans-Siberian Railway, Duma, Lenin, Mensheviks, Bolsheviks, Rasputin, Alexander Kerensky, Treaty of Brest Litovsk, Communist party, Trotsky, Cheka, New Economic Policy, Stalin, Five-Year Plan

Answer

1. (a) What attempts toward reform were made in Russia between 1820 and 1900? (b) How did each attempt end?
2. What crises in Russia between 1900 and 1917 led to the Russian Revolution?
3. By what steps did the Bolsheviks gain control of the government?

Critical Thinking

4. "Between 1900 and 1920, the government of Russia went from being Europe's most conservative to its most radical." (a) How inevitable was this transformation? (b) What factors might have led to a different outcome? (c) Was Stalin's government radical or conservative? Give reasons.

Connecting Past and Present

Under Stalin, the word *communism* became a synonym for oppression, cruelty, and dictatorship. Ruling the Soviet Union with an iron hand, Stalin was able—until his death in 1953—to suppress information about his terrible abuse of power. His successor, Nikita Khrushchev, allowed some of that information to become known through the policy of "de-Stalinization." More recently, Mikhail Gorbachev allowed more information about Stalin's rule to be published under the policy of greater freedom of the press.

Read and Understand

1. What were the effects World War I in Europe?
 2. How did society change during the 1920's?
 3. Why did the 1929 stock market crash lead to a worldwide depression?
 4. How did the dictators Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini come to power?
 5. What factors led to the start of World War II?
- VOCABULARY** isolationism, depression, free-enterprise, fascism, authoritarian, nazism, armed aggression, appeasement

The 20 years between 1919 and 1939 slowly brought recovery from World War I. In those years, society became more open to new ideas and ways of living. The prosperity of the late 1920's was followed by the 1929 stock market crash that sparked a worldwide depression. In Germany and Italy, the new political philosophy of fascism brought dictators to power. By the late 1930's, new tensions foretold a conflict.

Europe recovered from World War I.

The human and economic costs of World War I were enormous. The war had drained Europe's resources, while the United States and Japan were in better financial shape when the war ended than when it started. Changes in government were a further source of weakness in Europe, since time was needed for new democratic systems to get organized and working. In some countries, the number of political parties meant that no one party provided clear leadership. Instead, one party would get others to join it in a coalition government that worked but remained unstable.

The existence of many parties was particularly important in Germany. There a new democratic government, the Weimar Republic, had replaced the kaiser. Besides being politically divided, it also bore the burden of defeat in the war. Inflation too was a problem, due partly to Germany's printing money during the war and partly to the cost of reparations. To aid the German economy, the Dawes Plan arranged loans to Germany and rescheduled reparations payments. As a result, the German economy began to recover.

Society faced rapid change.

The return to normal after the war, in the Roaring Twenties, found a world quite different from what it had been before. Science and technology continued to transform everyday life. Automobiles became more commonplace as highways and gas stations appeared all over Europe and North America. Air travel also grew in response to feats such as Charles Lindbergh's solo flight across the Atlantic from New York to Paris.

Hundreds of commercial radio stations went on the air during the 1920's, as radio became a major form of entertainment and communication. In 1921, stations carried live, play-by-play descriptions of the World Series.

Scientists, meanwhile, were exploring whole new fields and developing new ideas about every aspect of the universe. Albert Einstein, a German physicist, offered startling new theories on space, time, energy, and the structure of matter. He theorized that enormous energy was locked inside every atom. Physicists were thus on the verge of developing a new power source—atomic energy—that would make all others seem insignificant. Another scientist, the Austrian physician Sigmund Freud, developed new theories about the workings of the human mind.

In everyday life as well, people were more receptive to new ideas than ever before. In some countries, women—who had taken on new work roles during the war—now gained the right to vote. Along with their traditional roles, women continued to seek new opportunities and ways of living.

Changes in ideas and life-styles were reflected in the art and literature of the decade. Whole new forms of design were developed by architects such as the American Frank Lloyd Wright. In music, literature, and art, change was the order of the day. Some artists reflected the insecurities that people felt as a result of the war. Others experimented with new styles and forms.

One area of exciting innovations in the 1920's was music. New musical styles such as jazz came out of the South and won devoted followers in every corner of the globe. The Los Angeles suburb of Hollywood became the movie capital of the world. Jazz and motion pictures symbolized the spread of American cultural influence around the world.

Many Americans were uncomfortable with their country's growing role as a world leader. They turned to **isolationism**, the idea that their country should avoid political ties to other countries. Thus the United States never joined the League of Nations, and it made its own treaties with the defeated countries after the war ended.

Wall Street's crash opened the Depression.

Despite isolationism, American businesses had become deeply involved in countries around the world. They carried on investment, loans, and trade on a vast scale. In a global economy, countries became increasingly interdependent. If problems arose in one major economic power, others would be affected.

In October 1929, prices on the American stock market, based on Wall Street in New York City, suddenly fell sharply. As more and more people tried to sell their stock, the decline continued. Billions of dollars in paper wealth simply vanished overnight. At first, it appeared that only the owners of stock were hurt by losses. As time went on, however, business activity fell. Businesses began to close, and jobs began to disappear. The result was the Great Depression. Between 1929 and 1932, American industrial production was cut in half. Banks closed their doors, and unemployment reached record levels.

The Great Depression showed that weaknesses existed not only in the United States economy but also throughout the world. As with the Industrial Revolution in the mid-1800's, industries and finance produced enormous wealth. The majority of the people, however, did not share in that wealth and could not afford to buy the goods produced. Thus, while industry continued its high production, supplies of goods piled up for lack of customers. As businesses finally began to reduce production, they needed fewer workers. The result was growing unemployment and even less demand for goods—a downward spiral of the economy.

The Depression also hurt farmers. A worldwide surplus of agricultural products led to lower prices and income for people who worked the land. The debts of farmers who could not pay off loans also weakened the banking system. Slowly people began to realize that some of the prosperity of the 1920's had been based on speculation in stocks, which led to the collapse. In the 1930's, optimism gave way to doubt and fear.

The Depression that began in the United States quickly spread around the world. The collapse of the stock market and failure of some American banks led to similar failures in other countries. During the Depression, manufacturing production fell by 38 percent worldwide and international trade dropped by 65 percent, while unemployment rates skyrocketed (graph, page 689). Thus the Depression confronted

nations with serious challenges to their economic and political systems.

In the first presidential election after the start of the Depression, Americans chose Franklin D. Roosevelt. A wealthy New Yorker, he nonetheless saw that drastic measures were needed to combat the Depression. Although he believed in the capitalist free-enterprise system, based on a market economy, he launched a major program of relief and reform called the New Deal. Under the New Deal, the government spent large amounts of public money on welfare and relief programs. Slowly the New Deal worked to bring the country out of the Depression. Roosevelt's leadership helped to preserve people's faith in their democratic political system.

The Depression had severe effects in Britain and France. Britain was greatly affected because its economy depended on foreign trade. To deal with the crisis, voters elected an all-party coalition that passed laws to aid the economy. France differed from Britain in being heavily agricultural and less dependent on trade. As unemployment rose, a coalition government made reforms to help the workers, and the crisis eased.

Fascist leaders became dictators.

The political and economic problems of the 1920's and 1930's were not all solved through democratic processes. In some countries, people turned to extremist groups (chart, page 695). One was communism. Another was a new political movement known as **fascism**. Fascism differed from communism in that it had no single plan of action. People who followed fascism, however, shared many ideas. One was an extreme type of nationalism that included war as an instrument of policy. Fascism also included belief in **authoritarian** leaders who required absolute loyalty to the state. Along with that, it relied on trappings such as uniforms or shirts of a certain color, used special salutes and cheers, and depended on mass rallies and ceremonies to glorify the state. Fascism also believed in a society divided by classes, with greater power for aristocrats and industrialists. Thus it was openly opposed to democracy.

The first European nation to turn to fascism was Italy. Among the reasons for this move were disappointment with the Treaty of Versailles, a severe economic crisis, and fear of communism. In 1922, Benito Mussolini seized power in Italy. Calling himself "Il Duce" (The Leader), Mussolini abolished all other political parties and set out to make Italy a great military power.

No country was hit harder by the Depression than Germany. Runaway inflation returned and factories ground to a halt. By 1932, nearly one out of every two Germans was out of work. With millions unem

ployed, Germany proved to be a fertile breeding ground for tyranny.

The dictator who emerged was Adolf Hitler, an Austrian who had led an aimless life before joining the National Socialist German Workers' (Nazi) Party and becoming its leader in 1921. Nazism became the German form of fascism. Hitler was imprisoned after taking part in a failed coup against the Weimar Republic in 1923. While in jail, Hitler wrote *Mein Kampf* to set forth his belief in German superiority, the faults of democracy, and the need for military power.

Nazi strength actually declined during the 1920's, but the Depression revived it. By a series of political moves in 1933, Hitler and the Nazis gained control of the Reichstag, the national parliament. They then turned to extreme measures that ended with Hitler becoming dictator. He banned competing parties, strengthened the Gestapo—the secret police—and set up concentration camps for those opposed to his actions. Hitler also determined to persecute the Jews, depriving them of citizenship, spreading anti-Jewish terror, and sending millions to concentration camps. To maintain their power, the Nazis used censorship, propaganda, and other tools of a totalitarian state. At the same time, spending for military purposes created new jobs and gave the appearance of prosperity. In 1936, Hitler and Mussolini signed a military alliance known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. Japan later joined the Axis Powers.

While fascism was developing in Italy and Germany, a different system was emerging in Japan. A period of liberal reform in the 1920's ended in the crisis of the Depression and the rise to power of military leaders. These leaders dreamed of an empire to meet Japan's needs for resources and food. In 1931, Japanese troops invaded China's province of Manchuria.

The world drifted toward war.

By the mid-1930's, it was clear that the world's powerful countries were divided, with one group democratic and one Fascist. The exception was the Soviet Union and communism. Many people hoped that the League of Nations would succeed in keeping peace. The League, however, was too weak to deal with the crises that arose from a pattern of armed aggression, or wars of conquest.

The Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931 was the first direct challenge to the League. The next came in 1935 with Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia as the start of an Italian colonial empire in Africa. Early in 1936, Hitler sent troops into the Rhineland, a region of Germany that by the Treaty of Versailles was to remain unfortified. Later in 1936, General Francisco Franco launched a civil war to establish fascism in Spain. In 1937, Japan invaded China, start-

ing World War II in Asia. In March 1938, Hitler took over Austria and threatened Czechoslovakia (map, page 700).

The Munich Conference, a meeting of vast significance, took place in the German city of Munich in September 1938 (Turning Point, pages 702–703). There the leaders of Britain, France, Italy, and Germany met to settle the issue concerning Czechoslovakia. The result was **appeasement**, as Britain and France agreed to let Hitler take part of Czechoslovakia as the price for peace. Six months later Hitler broke the agreement by taking the rest of Czechoslovakia. Appeasement had failed.

Chapter Review

Define isolationism, depression, free-enterprise, fascism, authoritarian, nazism, armed aggression, appeasement

Identify Weimar Republic, Albert Einstein, Frank Lloyd Wright, Great Depression, New Deal, Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, Axis Powers, Munich Conference

Answer

1. What conditions prevailed in Europe during the early 1920's?
2. How did society change in the 1920's?
3. How did the stock market crash lead to the Great Depression?
4. (a) What factors contributed to the rise of fascism?
(b) What were the main characteristics of fascism?

Critical Thinking

5. What actions, if any, by the League of Nations, Munich Conference, or some other means might have prevented the drift toward World War II?

Connecting Past and Present

The development of new communications media brought people in closer touch with events around the world. In 1927, news reporters in Paris used radio to describe to a waiting world the landing of Charles Lindbergh's plane after his solo flight across the Atlantic. The 1930's saw the start of television—first used to telecast the opening of the New York World's Fair in 1939.

Since that time, television has given people everywhere instant reporting of the news. The effect has been to involve people with news events and to bind them in shared recollections. Who, of those who saw it on television, will ever forget the moon landing, the *Challenger* disaster, or the opening of the Berlin Wall? Such experiences give new meaning to the byline of one radio broadcaster: "You are there."

Read and Understand

1. How was Germany able to overrun most of Europe?
2. How did Japan conquer an empire in Asia?
3. What events made possible an Allied victory?
4. In what ways were the outcomes of World War II a mixed legacy?

VOCABULARY nonaggression pact, blitzkrieg, genocide, Holocaust, internment camp

World War II was actually two great wars fought at the same time. While German aggression overran Europe, Japanese forces swept across eastern Asia. Allied military and economic strength eventually triumphed, achieving the complete defeat of the Fascist powers. This most terrible war in history claimed the lives of more than 40 million people, including millions of civilians.

Germany overran much of Europe.

After taking over Czechoslovakia without resistance in the spring of 1939, Hitler next turned his attention to Poland. He demanded territory along the German border. The Polish government refused to yield. In August 1939, Hitler and Stalin suddenly signed a **nonaggression pact** that secretly divided eastern Europe between them (map, page 730). With his powerful eastern neighbor now neutral, Hitler was free to move. On September 1, German armies invaded Poland. Britain and France gave Poland their full support by declaring war on September 3. World War II in Europe had begun (map, page 708).

The military tactics of World War II contrasted sharply with the stalemated trench warfare of World War I. Hitler had completely rebuilt the German army, creating the greatest fighting force the world had ever seen. In a new style of warfare called **blitzkrieg**, or lightning war, the Germans used tanks, armored vehicles, and airplanes to move quickly against an enemy and to overrun large areas of land in little time. These new weapons gave the aggressor an enormous advantage in battle.

Hitler used these tactics to conquer Poland and—in the spring of 1940—to overrun Scandinavia, the Low Countries, and France. By July 1941, most of Western Europe except Britain had fallen to the German onslaught. During the summer of 1941, Hitler planned his invasion of Britain. He knew that the success of an invasion would depend on controlling the skies. Thus began the Battle of Britain, in which British planes

fought for and kept that control. Led by Prime Minister Winston Churchill, Britain proudly defied the Nazis. Hitler abandoned the idea of invasion.

Hitler's empire was now similar in size to Napoleon's. But the master of lightning war made the same fatal error as Napoleon. In June 1941, Hitler broke his treaty with Stalin and invaded the Soviet Union. Unprepared, the Soviet army suffered defeat after defeat. By the fall of 1941, German forces controlled most of European Russia to the outskirts of Leningrad and Moscow. There they finally faced strong resistance and the brutal cold of the Russian winter. The Soviets had halted the Nazi advance—at least until spring.

Japan conquered an Asian Empire.

Although war began in Europe in 1939, full-scale conflict had been going on in Asia since 1937, when Japan invaded China. Although the Japanese gained control of most major cities, conquering the vast interior proved difficult. Japanese leaders decided instead to move toward the rubber plantations of the

Comparison of Axis and Allied Powers, September 1939

Axis Strengths	Axis Weaknesses
High military/naval readiness	Limited resource base
Powerful German air force	Open to blockade
Powerful Japanese navy	Danger of second front
Total economic mobilization	Lack of large navy (Ger.)
Highly centralized control	Aggression a moral weakness
Planned offensive	
Nonaggression pact with USSR	
Additions: Austria, etc.	
Allied Strengths	Allied Weaknesses
Industrial strength	Unprepared for war, blitzkrieg
Overseas allies, colonies	Reliance on Maginot Line defense
Moral opposition to aggression	Lack of weapons, planes, tanks
Larger manpower	Economies unprepared for war
Large merchant fleet, navy	Oriented to appeasement
Possible U.S. aid, alliance	Internal political divisions
Time on Allied side	Open to air, sub attack
	Underestimated Axis strength

Malay Peninsula and the oil-rich islands of the East Indies. They knew, however, that such aggression would bring war with the United States, which supported China and had the Philippines. Why not strike first? In December of 1941, Japan sought to destroy the American fleet by attacking the American naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. That devastating attack immediately brought the United States into World War II on the side of Britain and the Soviet Union and against the Axis Powers.

In eastern Asia, as in Europe, the Allies at first suffered staggering defeats. By 1942, the Japanese controlled almost all of eastern Asia except Australia (map, page 717). To hold that enormous region, Japan needed control of the seas. This meant that much of the fighting in the Pacific war took place at sea or on the islands that stretched from Australia to Japan.

The war at sea involved both submarines and a new kind of fighting vessel, the aircraft carrier. Japanese aircraft carriers had made possible the surprise attack on Pearl Harbor. Although that attack sank or damaged eight American battleships, the American aircraft carriers were at sea and so escaped to fight again. With them, the United States navy won two great naval battles, the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Battle of Midway, to stop the Japanese advance in 1942. Then began the struggle to regain the islands Japan had conquered. In 1943, after months of fierce fighting, American soldiers retook Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands. No longer protected by its aircraft carriers, the Japanese army was forced to begin a slow withdrawal across the 10,000-mile-long Pacific front, with American troops and ships in pursuit.

The Allies launched a drive to victory.

The summer of 1942 saw the start of a major German campaign in North Africa to capture Egypt's Suez Canal (map, page 721). By fall, German tanks had pushed to within a hundred miles of the canal. In October, British forces launched a sudden counter-offensive at El Alamein that pushed the Germans back. German losses in one week of fighting included 60,000 men, more than 500 tanks, and 400 large artillery pieces. The Battle of El Alamein, which stopped the German advance in North Africa, was a major turning point in the war.

Meanwhile Soviet armies had launched a major counteroffensive in Eastern Europe. In the fall of 1942, they surrounded 300,000 German soldiers in the city of Stalingrad. Hitler refused to allow a retreat. For six months, fierce combat ranged in the streets of Stalingrad before the 90,000 German survivors surrendered. Then Soviet forces took the offensive and pushed westward toward Germany all along the front.

By mid-1943, American and British forces had pushed the Germans out of North Africa and invaded Sicily and Italy. This action took pressure off Soviet armies in the east and allowed the Allies to prepare for an eventual invasion of France. As Allied soldiers fought their way up the Italian peninsula, Mussolini's government collapsed, and the dictator himself was captured and executed.

On June 6, 1944, Allied forces invaded Normandy in the largest seaborne landing of all time. Millions of British and American troops raced across France after the retreating German armies. At the same time, other Allied armies invaded southern France and moved north to link up with forces from the Normandy invasion.

By early 1945, the outcome of the war in Europe was no longer in doubt. Allied armies had invaded Germany from both east and west, but Hitler refused to concede defeat. Finally, in April 1945, as Russian and American forces entered Berlin, the Nazi dictator committed suicide. Germany formally surrendered several days later. In the Far East, the American advance across the Pacific—*island hopping*—continued throughout 1943 and 1944. The Japanese put up almost fanatic resistance, often killing themselves rather than facing capture. The cost in American casualties was high.

By the spring of 1945, after capturing the islands of Okinawa and Iwo Jima, Allied forces were ready to strike at Japan itself. Already daily bombing raids were attacking major Japanese cities. It appeared, however, that the war might drag on before a final and costly invasion of Japan could take place.

The end of the war came suddenly in August 1945, after the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki were utterly destroyed by a terrifying new weapon, the atom bomb. For several years, American scientists had worked to develop this new weapon, in which atoms of uranium were split to release fantastic amounts of energy and cause untold destruction. In Hiroshima, 80,000 people perished; the second bomb killed 40,000 in Nagasaki. Several days later the Japanese emperor asked his people to "bear the unbearable" and announced his nation's surrender.

There is no question that the use of the atom bomb shortened the war in the Pacific. But this revolutionary new weapon also marked the beginning of a whole new era in human history, the atomic age. Dr. Robert Oppenheimer, one of the inventors of the atom bomb, witnessed the first test of the weapon in New Mexico. To describe the experience, he quoted Vishnu from the ancient Indian text to *Bhagavad Gita*. "I am become death, the destroyer of worlds." The new and terrible weapon gave political leaders the power to destroy entire civilizations in

an instant. World War II thus became the last traditional war. The world quite literally could not afford another unlimited global conflict.

World War II left a mixed legacy.

World War II caused massive destruction. The development of aerial bombing put whole civilian populations in danger. Early in the war, the German air force destroyed the Dutch city of Rotterdam, and bombs and rockets rained on London. Later, in 1945, British and American bombers killed more than 45,000 people in air raids over the German city of Dresden.

The greatest human destruction was that directed by Hitler and the Nazis against the Jews in Germany and other conquered countries. In 1941, while German armies were spreading across Europe, Hitler began a program of **genocide**—the deliberate effort to kill an entire people. His “final solution” for the Jews included setting up more than 30 death camps across central and eastern Europe. For four long years, the gas chambers claimed thousands of victims every day. Altogether, more than 6 million Jews—three out of every four living in Europe—perished in the Nazi death camps. This horrific Jewish genocide is known as the **Holocaust**.

Other peoples too became victims of Nazi brutality. About 4 million—including Poles, Russians, Czechs, and many Gypsies—died in German concentration camps, or prisons. Thousands of Slavs were rounded up and sent to slave labor camps, where most of them perished from hunger, cold, exhaustion, or disease. In Asia, thousands of Allied prisoners died in death marches to Japanese prison camps. Hundreds of thousands of Chinese civilians died in bombings and the prolonged fighting that went on in China. In all, more than 30 million civilians died in World War II—more than twice the number of soldiers killed in battle.

World War II was a total war like none the world had ever before seen. It involved not only military and naval forces but also the civilian populations and economies of entire nations. In the United States, the war brought huge increases in industrial production as the nation sought to provide Allied forces with the materials for war. One result was that opportunities for women and members of minorities in the work force increased.

Americans were lucky in that their country escaped the aerial bombing that claimed the lives of millions of civilians in countries from Britain to China. One group of Americans, however, suffered a

tragic experience. Thousands of Japanese Americans were confined for years in **internment camps**, or prisonlike camps in remote places. The reason was the sense of fear and uncertainty, as well as prejudice in the United States, that followed Japan's bombing of Pearl Harbor. Actually, about 20,000 Japanese American men enlisted in the armed forces and served overseas. In 1988, Congress voted reparations to those who had been interned.

Chapter Review

Define nonaggression pact, blitzkrieg, genocide, Holocaust, internment camp

Identify Battle of Britain, Winston Churchill, Pearl Harbor, Battle of Midway, El Alamein, Battle of Stalingrad, Hiroshima, Nagasaki, final solution

Answer

1. How did Germany succeed in taking over most of Europe?
2. (a) What was Japan's plan for an empire? (b) How did Japan intend to gain this empire?
3. What were the major events leading to an Allied victory?
4. In what ways was World War II more destructive than World War I?

Critical Thinking

5. If you were advising the Allied nations after the war, what suggestions would you make concerning peace agreements?

Connecting Past and Present

The use of the atom bomb at Hiroshima and Nagasaki brought a swift, terrifying conclusion to a war whose horrors made the first conflict seem almost minor in comparison. Where World War I had claimed more than 15 million lives, more than three times that number perished in World War II.

More and more historians view the two wars as part of one continuing conflict, beginning in 1914 and ending in 1945, with a 20-year interval between two periods of intense violence. The issues that launched World War I were not resolved by that war and remained to cause future conflict. The outcome of World War II differed, however, as people realized anew the destructive power of war and the need for peace.

Unit VIII Review: Linking Historical Themes

The years between 1914 and 1945 provide important examples of the role that key ideas, economic forces, influential leaders, and the processes of cooperation and conflict played in shaping world events.

Impact of Ideas A number of ideas had a significant impact on the early twentieth century. In Russia, the idea of communism—originated by Marx and developed by Lenin—became the basis of a new political and economic system. In Stalin's hands, it became the means to a totalitarian state. In Italy and Germany, the concept of fascism took hold through its appeal to people on the basis of political power and national glory. Combined with nationalism and imperialism, it provided Hitler and Mussolini with a philosophy for aggression and world conquest.

India's Mahatma Gandhi gave the world a more powerful and lasting idea—that of peaceful change through nonviolent resistance. In India, that idea became a means to gaining independence.

Economics and History Rarely in history has a single economic event had the political and social impact that the Great Depression had on the world of the 1930's. Virtually every country on every continent was affected by the tremendous economic decline that began with the Wall Street crash of 1929. The extreme conditions of hunger, unemployment, and economic insecurity caused by the Depression created an environment in some countries where the political extreme of fascism could thrive. The Depression left a legacy of doubt and fear that would mark the generation that lived through it.

Cooperation and Conflict Both of the great wars of the twentieth century grew out of military aggression and the desire for political expansion. There were, however, significant differences between the two conflicts. World War I resulted from a breakdown in the balance of power that had preserved peace in Europe for over a century. World War II, by contrast,

resulted from the willingness of military powers—notably Germany, Italy, and Japan—to use aggression as a means for conquest. Only through defensive wars could other nations—such as Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and China—survive.

Although peace remained elusive in the decades after World War II, the principle of international cooperation, set forth in the charter of the United Nations, was firmly established. The destruction and horror of World War II would for generations symbolize the futility of war and the need for peaceful means to resolve conflicts.

Individuals and History The ideas and actions of individuals continued to affect events and the direction of change in the twentieth century. Stalin and Hitler forged powerful totalitarian regimes that systematically violated human rights. By contrast, Wilson, Churchill, and Roosevelt championed the democratic ideas expressed in the Fourteen Points and the Atlantic Charter. Eleanor Roosevelt led the United Nations commission that wrote the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Analyzing Historical Themes

1. (a) Identify the main characteristics of fascism. (b) What factors account for the rise of fascism in the years between the wars?
2. (a) In what ways did the Depression contribute to the rise of fascism? (b) Why did the Depression leave a legacy of fear and uncertainty?
3. (a) How did the aims of Germany, Great Britain, Russia (the USSR), and the United States in World War I compare with those in World War II? (b) Compare the wars' outcomes for each country.
4. (a) To what extent did Hitler represent the times in which he lived? (b) To what extent did Eleanor Roosevelt portray the postwar era?